

SUPPLEMENT.

The Mining Journal,

RAILWAY AND COMMERCIAL GAZETTE:

FORMING A COMPLETE RECORD OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF ALL PUBLIC COMPANIES.

No. 1798.—VOL. XL.

LONDON, SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 5, 1870.

{ STAMPED .. SIXPENCE.
UNSTAMPED.FIVEPENCE

Original Correspondence.

THE INSPECTION OF COLLIERIES.

SIR.—As the report of the meeting to which the enclosed correspondence refers appeared in the *Mining Journal* (Supplement of Jan. 22), will you be so good as to give similar publicity to the letters of reply?

JOSEPH DICKINSON, Inspector of Mines.

Pendleton, Manchester, Jan. 29.

[COPY.]

Pendleton, Manchester, Jan. 19.—SIR: I see by the *Manchester Guardian* of to-day a report of your speech at a meeting held at the Town Hall, Oldham, yesterday, on the subject of protection to miners, and the education of miners' children. There are some inaccuracies in it with regard to dates, and such like, but these are only such as might be made by anyone not thoroughly conversant with the subject. What I am concerned about is your statement as to the appointment of sub-Inspectors, "who would visit the pits from time to time without notice, and without expecting to be driven there in the carriage of any person." This cannot, I should suppose, mean that the present Inspectors do not intend to be driven either in their own or a hired carriage or cab when they find it requisite; and I am afraid it will be taken as an insinuation that the riding is now done in the carriages of the colliery owners, and that the Inspectors do not impartially. I shall be glad, therefore, as the statement has been made in your district, if you will inform me whether it is intended to apply to me, and, so, whether you have any ground for making such a statement.

JOSEPH DICKINSON, Inspector of Mines.

J. T. Hibbert, Esq., M.P., Oldham.

Urmston Grange, Stretford, Manchester, Jan. 29.—MY DEAR SIR: In reply to your letter of yesterday, referring to my speech at Oldham on Tuesday night, in which I recommended the appointment of sub-Inspectors of collieries, "who would visit the pits from time to time without notice, and without expecting to be driven there in the carriage of anyone," I do not for a moment hesitate to say that the words were not intended to apply to you or to your district. They were used by me in a general sense, and were meant to show more strongly the character of the inspection which I recommended—viz., that is should be frequent, unsolicited, and without notice. Having every reason to believe that the inspection in this district has been carried out impartially, I should be sorry if the words which I used should be supposed to reflect in any manner upon it.

JOHN T. HIBBERT.

P.S.—The errors to which you refer are principally those of the reporter.

Joseph Dickinson, Esq., H.M. Inspector of Mines.

Pendleton, Manchester, Jan. 21.—DEAR SIR: Your letter of the 20th inst. is satisfactory to me; but as it is desirable there should be no misunderstanding amongst the coal miners on the subject, I hope you have no objection to your explanation being made public. JOSEPH DICKINSON, Inspector of Mines.

John T. Hibbert, Esq., M.P., Oldham.

Urmston Grange, Stretford, Manchester, Jan. 22.—MY DEAR SIR: You are quite at liberty to make my explanation public. In haste. J. T. HIBBERT.

Joseph Dickinson, Esq., H.M. Inspector of Mines.

BOILER EXPLOSIONS.

SIR.—Observant newspaper readers can scarcely fail to have been struck with the large number of explosions which have lately taken place in various parts of the country. These explosions have not only resulted in serious loss of life, and a great destruction of property, but seem to throw a slur upon our engineers and manufacturers, which it is most desirable should be removed. For some reason or other, boiler explosions are generally classed in the category of "accidents," and the public are led to regard them as fatalities almost impossible of prevention, and to look upon them almost as a natural concomitant upon the use of steam power. In the great majority of instances, however, these explosions are no "accidents" at all, the facts proving that they arise from easily preventable causes. Of course, boiler explosions are the result of various circumstances, but principally may be traced either to malconstruction, inefficiency of strength, want of water, or that cheese-paring penny wise and pound foolish policy which sometimes rules supreme in the fitting up of new or the repair of old boilers. In either case, the blame is generally laid at the door of the engineer or manufacturer, and thus wrong impression is conveyed to the minds of the public, most detrimental to the interests of a most important branch of trade; whereas a little investigation would enable those who take an interest in such matters to "put the saddle on the right horse," and exonerate from fault those whose interest, above all things else, is to prevent the recurrence of these dreadful explosions.

Scientific and mechanical knowledge has lately made considerable progress, and in the manufacture of but few articles has this knowledge been brought to bear with greater advantage than in the fitting and erection of boilers; in fact, there are now so many scientific self-acting appliances to denote danger—so many steam-whistles, blow-cocks, safety-valves, water-gauges, &c.—that the wonder almost is that boiler explosions occur at all—that they have not long since been numbered with the "things of the past." And yet it is lamentable to find that during the past year there occurred no less than 46 boiler explosions, killing no less than 86 persons, and seriously injuring about 100 more. Upon an average, therefore, a boiler explosion occurred almost every week throughout the whole of last year. Probably during the first month of the present year more than a proportion of explosions have occurred. This is a state of things which must be deplored by all large manufacturers and users of steam-power, and should impress upon all the importance of adopting every means which science and skill have suggested for the prevention of these calamities.

The subject now prominently alluded to is one of deep importance to the mining and manufacturing world generally, and one to which all should give their earnest attention. The loss of life which annually results from these explosions is a very serious thing, and the destruction of property great. In the majority of instances there has been a too great disregard of the scientific appliances, or a tinkering by incompetent persons in the necessary repairs. How self-evident is this last observation made by reading the evidence given last week at the inquest held respecting the explosion in the brickyard at Briton Ferry, South Wales, and which called forth justly-merited condemnation from Mr. Wales, the Government Inspector of Mines. Even regarded in a mere pecuniary point of view it is to the interest of all to adopt all modern scientific discoveries for the prevention of such explosions. Probably there is no fatal occurrence more easily preventable than these explosions of boilers. A strong, properly made and properly fitted up boiler, with all modern danger appliances, regularly cleansed and periodically inspected, is, comparatively speaking, free from even the risk of explosion, and is far more economical in its working. If our engineers and our working engineers would, as a rule, insist upon the most approved appliances being affixed to all boilers, would see that they were properly erected, and if the proprietors themselves would consult their own interests in the purchase of boilers so fitted, then there would be an immunity from these dread explosions. If, on the other hand, small manufacturers and users of steam-power will pursue the same false economy as they

have hitherto done, employ incompetent men to tinker and patch old worn-out boilers, which should long since have been disused, then we shall continue to hear of these explosions; but, in the name of all that is fair and honest, let the "saddle be put upon the right horse," and the blame removed from the door of the manufacturer and engineer to that of the person who discards all modern appliances of safety, and disregards his own interests.

INDEX.
London, Feb. 2.

MINING IN COLORADO.

SIR.—In looking over a copy of your valuable Journal of a recent date, I find that Colorado is at last beginning to attract attention among capitalists. I am surprised that this region, so rich in gold and silver, as well as other metals, has escaped so long the notice of those seeking investments in valuable mines. During the several months of my residence here I have made it my business to examine as thoroughly as possible the many different mines in Gilpin and Clear Creek counties, and gather such information as could be obtained in regard to their extent and value. As a result of this investigation, permit me to say that it is my decided opinion that for extent and richness the veins of Colorado cannot be excelled; they are broad, well defined, and generally easily worked. Hundreds of them are being worked by individual enterprise, mostly without capital, and in a very superficial and unpractical manner, and yet fair profits are realised. Were these mines in the hands of English companies, who would work them in a practical and miner-like manner, using more perfect machinery for the reduction of the ores, I am sure very much larger dividends would be realised from them than from such investments generally. Here money is lent readily at 2 per cent. per month; with our English capitalists it is worth from 3 to 4 per cent. per annum. How much better investment in these mines would be than those ordinarily made.

Railroad facilities for the transportation of freight to and from the country are enjoyed here now, and new life is springing up throughout the entire country. Hundreds are visiting the mines weekly, for the purpose of making examinations, with a view to investment. One of the best mines I have found, and one with the greatest promise for successful working in the future, is the California Mine. It is owned and worked by a single individual, and has yielded from the labour of 20 men, in the past year, over 40,000[£], at an expense of from 10,000[£] to 12,000[£].

It is impossible to mention all the lodes possessing great merit now, but in my future correspondence, should it please you to grant me space in your valuable Journal, I will treat of them more at length.

Central City, Colorado (U.S.A.), Jan. 15. JESSE ARCHIBALD.

GOLD MINING IN GRASS VALLEY, CALIFORNIA.

SIR.—I was delighted to learn of the success Mr. Batters met with on his return from this country, and I may venture to say without any fear of contradiction that Grass Valley is the richest mining spot in the world. Some short time since I had the pleasure to inspect the far-famed Eureka Mine. This is a wonderful property. I estimated in my report that the company had in reserve 64,800 tons of available rock without sinking a foot under the 500 foot level. This number of tons, at \$20 per ton (which is below the average price), will yield \$1,296,000 worth of gold. Even this valuable mine had its reverses in early days, and operations were suspended for want of capital. The Idaho at one time could be bought for almost a song, is now paying large dividends, and valued at hundreds of thousands of dollars. The Union Hill Mine, now the property of the Pacific Mining Company, was some time since stopped by means of poverty, when ultimately a rather promiscuous company was formed (many of them went to work in the mine), operations commenced, and prospects began to brighten, and so continued, when last month (December) the snug little sum of \$17,000 was cleaned up, and the mine improving. The stopes and ends throughout the mine are looking healthy, particularly so in going east; they have some good reserves, and the future working of this excellent mine can easily be calculated upon by the simple Rule of Three. If a 20-stamp mill will produce \$17,000 a month, what will a 20-stamp mill produce?

Here I beg to congratulate Mr. George Batters on his judicious purchase, and also the company connected with him. But the progress of mining need not be stayed because the Eureka, the Idaho, and the Union Hill Mines are rich. No doubt but what there are many who feel themselves somewhat disappointed by not having an interest in the Pacific Mining Company. To such I would say, Ye gentlemen of capital you need not despair, but follow the example of Mr. Batters—Come and see for yourselves. We have many such mines as the above, nothing but capital wanted to develop them, such as Scadding Flat, Rocky Bar, and Gold Hill; consolidate those mines, work them extensively, and you will have a Eureka. Next follows the Ione and the Union Jack; unite those mines, work them judiciously, and you will have an Idaho. In rotation I would call attention to the Greenhorn and the Potosi Mines, purchase and develop them, and you will have a Union Hill; besides there are many of smaller magnitude well worthy the attention of capitalists, and should be sought after in the least possible time. The question may arise, How is it that in former days many of the reported rich mines in Grass Valley made such disastrous failures? The answer is obvious. Without saying a word about the competency of management, we must remember that in those days, when the mines alluded to were proverbial for the yield of rich specimens, every available cellar and secret place were converted into a miniature quartz mill, worked by the "pestle and mortar" process, and the amount of gold thus clandestinely extracted must have been enormous.

Grass Valley, Jan. 10.

also been discontinued, through the mine improved in depth as rapidly as could reasonably be expected; and had the adventurers had a little patience, I have no hesitation in saying they would be amply rewarded. The attention of enterprising parties is now directed to the Ballydehob mining district, which locality is peculiarly adapted for mining purposes, and its ore-producing capacity beyond question. At the Cappagh Copper Mine, now about to be re-worked, under circumstances the most favourable for the future of this most valuable mine, which has been wonderfully productive for the depth reached, the ore, too, is of a superior quality, and no doubt can be entertained as to the success of the adventurers, and I only hope a like spirit of enterprise will be extended to the mines of the neighbouring districts, where untold riches await the coming of the capitalist. I believe ere long the county of Cork will become of vast commercial importance: skill and capital are the only requirements needed to place it in a position little short of the brightest days of Cornwall.—Bath, Feb. 2.

NORTH WESTER.

MINING IN CORNWALL—PROMISING PROSPECTS.

SIR.—Much has been said of late about Cornish miners. Now, I believe I am right when I state that nothing has paid better in past times to the investor than Cornish mining—certainly we have experienced two or three years of depression in the metal trade, but we have a turn now for the better, and I hope for the benefit of all that our mining speculators will take advantage of it. Many rich mines are yet to be found in Cornwall, but there are many parties who will tell you, if you should purpose working a piece of mining ground, with indications of the best description, "There is nothing there—the district is condemned, no dividend mines near at hand, I shall not venture there;" but this is to me a very wrong idea—there are many rich mines yet to be found. Having had nearly 30 years' experience throughout the county of Cornwall, I am enabled to speak with some degree of confidence that there are many tin lodes which, with present price of tin, would pay well to open at once—nothing required but outlay for machinery. Lead mines have kept more regular, and continue to pay good dividends. I may mention a lead mine between Bodmin and Liskeard (East Jane) that was abandoned about three years ago, probably for want of funds to erect proper machinery. I believe they sold about 7000[£] worth of lead from one lode, and the depth of the mine is only 48 fms.; and I am informed that the lode in the bottom level never looked more promising for a large deposit of lead than when the mine was abandoned. The lode was large, producing a mass of gossan, with lumps of lead; so that, if we speak from the indications, it is evidently the top of a large mass of ore. It may be well for me to state, too, that this mine was worked near the south boundary, and that the lead is fast dipping south into the valley; and it is my opinion, as well as of many other practical mining men, that the main deposit will be found in the valley. Wheal Scilly adjoins to the south; this mine was worked some years ago, but they did nothing more than we might call shodding on the backs of the lodes, the deepest part of the mine being only 15 fms. below surface. At this mine, as at the other, the machinery was inadequate for deeper working, and the mine was abandoned for want of funds. It is the opinion of all who have examined the mine that if powerful machinery were erected, and the mine sunk another 40 fms., the lode would be found good and lasting. There are several lodes traversing the sett, most of which yield good stones of lead and gossan on the backs. It is my opinion the time will come when we shall see a regular group of mines in this valley. It only wants a little pluck and spirit, with a small outlay, to find one good mine, when you will soon find parties flocking around in search of others. There is every facility to work a mine here: the carriage of materials is easy, being near the railway, and a never-failing stream of water—the River Fowey passing through the sett—sufficient to pump, draw, crush, dress, &c.; this is of great value.

A CORNISH MINER.

Poncarla, Jan. 31.

MINING IN CORNWALL—THE MARAZION DISTRICT.

SIR.—I may begin this epistle with—
"Breathes there a man, with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land!
Whose heart had never within him burned
At home his footstep he hath turned
From wandering on a foreign strand!"

Now, although I have not been wandering on a very foreign strand, yet there are many years glided by since I last visited the land that gave me birth, until I was induced to do so last month, to see many old faces whom I well remembered (but many have passed away), and as well to see what was really the state of things around the Marazion district. I found matters bad enough, but then they might have been much worse; and as it may be interesting to some of your readers to know the exact state of affairs in that part, I will give it to you as it comes under my notice.

On my arrival at the Marazion Station I enquired my way first to Marazion, and then on to Goldsithney. About midway between these two places I found a new mine being opened up, and, like all persons wishing well to their native home, was not content with a casual passing by, but I remained on the spot and examined the stuff carefully. I also took the liberty of asking some of the miners on the ground to get the captain (a most intelligent and industrious man, and who was then underground) to have the kindness to give me an interview of a few minutes, and this request was complied with—hands were grasped that had not before shaken for fourteen years. I found they were working at a depth of 15 fms. from surface, on a lode varying from 4 to 6 ft. wide; and as it would be superfluous to go into what I consider and which some men might say would be probable, I will say at once that there is no matter for consideration or probability, for the lode has really entered into a course of yellow and black copper ore; and a finer or better young mine I do not recollect seeing for very many years.

On arriving at Goldsithney I found my friend, Mr. Absalom Bennett, had been instrumental as the moving cause, and that he and the Messrs. Wm. and Thos. Gundry were (I believe I am correct) the sole proprietors of the property. Nothing could have given me greater pleasure than to know this, for from the time of my father having set his foot in this part the ancestors of these gentlemen had been the means of employing him as their manager, and they opened out the great and good mines around, which caused so much good to the community at large, and were the means of raising and producing millions of pounds worth of tin and copper. During my stay the Messrs. Gundry paid a visit to the mine, started a new engine-shaft, and in a few months a steam-engine will be erected; by that time we may expect to see a large number of hands employed of every kind, and good dividends going into the pockets of the shareholders. The mine is on a maiden piece of ground, and stands midway between the Old Wheal Neptune and the Great Wheal Fortune Mines, both of which were worked by the Messrs. Gundry of other days.

I found that Great Prosper was kept on entirely by the tributaries—a most intelligent and hard working lot of men, and for many years these men have been more than self-supporting. When mines were abandoned they would go and find pieces of ground, paying a royalty of one-eighth or one-tenth, and work their own way. Many are doing this at the present moment.

To think that mining in Cornwall is going to nothing seems to me the most

MINING IN IRELAND.

SIR.—About two miles west of Crookhaven is the Brow Head Copper Mine, which for the want of capital to carry on the works has been abandoned. The geological position of this property is clay-slate, traversed by several masterly and well-defined lodes, or metallic courses, possessing indications that must carry conviction to the most sceptical of its genuine mineral worth. Few mines in the kingdom produced so much ore of high percentage near the surface; in fact, it presents to the eye of the experienced miner evidence of immense richness, and it is to be regretted so valuable a property should remain undeveloped. Situate on the south shore of the commodious harbour of Crookhaven, the Crookhaven Copper Mine, which had been worked in a practical manner for some time, has

tions were also carried on *pari passu* on those of the open pit during the descent. These are given in the table annexed. By a comparison of the results in the two columns, it will be observed that as the depth increased the differences between the corresponding temperatures in the pit and the strata tended to augment; in other words, the temperature of the strata was found to augment more rapidly than that of the open pit. The effects of the high temperature and pressure on the strata at the depth of 2425 feet are, as I am informed by Mr. Bryham, making themselves felt, and cause an increase in the expense both of labour and timber for props. This colliery, in fact, will be in a position to put to the test our views and speculations on the effects of high temperature and pressure on mining operations. In order to obtain the average rate of increase of heat as shown by the experiments at Rose Bridge Colliery, we may assume, in the absence of direct observation, the position and temperature of the invariable stratum to be 50 feet from the surface and 50° Fahr. which is probably nearly the mean temperature of the place. With these data, the increase is 1° Fahr. for every 54·57 feet, which approximates to that obtained by Prof. Phillips, at Monkwearmouth, of 1° Fahr. for about every 60 feet. If on the other hand, for the purpose of comparison, we adopt the measurements for the invariable stratum as obtained at Dukinfield, we find the rate of increase to be 1° Fahr. for every 47·2 feet as against 1° Fahr. for every 83·2 feet in the case of Dukinfield itself.

So great a discordance in the results is remarkable, and is not, in my opinion, attributable to inaccuracy of observation in making the experiments. On the other hand, I may venture to suggest that it is due, at least in some measure, to dissimilarity in the position and inclination of the strata in each case. These I now proceed to point out. Rose Bridge Colliery occupies a position in the centre of a gently sloping trough, where the beds are nearly horizontal; they are terminated both on the west and east by large parallel faults which throw up the strata on either side. The colliery is placed in what is known as "the deep belt." Dukinfield Colliery, on the other hand, is planted upon strata which are highly inclined. The beds of sandstone, shale, and coal rise and crop out to the eastward at angles varying from 30° to 35°. Now, I think we may assume that strata consisting of sandstone, shales, clays, and coal alternating with each other, are capable of conducting heat more rapidly along the planes of bedding than across them, different kinds of rock having, as Mr. Hopkins's experiments show, different conducting powers. If this be so, we have an evident reason for the dissimilar results in the two cases before us. Assuming a constant supply of heat from the interior of the earth, it could only escape, in the case of Rose Bridge, across the planes of bedding, meeting in its progress upwards the resistance offered by strata of, in each case, varying conducting powers. On the other hand, in the case of Dukinfield, the internal heat could travel along the steeply inclined strata themselves, and ultimately escape along the outcrop of the beds. I merely offer this as a suggestion explanatory of the results before us, and may be allowed to add that the strata at Monkwearmouth Colliery, the thermometrical observations at which correspond so closely with those obtained at Rose Bridge, are also in a position not much removed from the horizontal, which is some evidence in corroboration of the views here offered.

THERMOMETRICAL OBSERVATIONS AT ROSE BRIDGE COLLIERY.

Date.	Depth in yards.	Strata.	Temperature	Temperature
			In open	In solid
July, 1854	161	Blue shale	—° F.	64·5° F.
August, 1854	188	Warrant earth	—	65
May, 1855	550	Blue shale	—	78
July, 1855	600	Warrant earth	—	80
May, 1858	630	Raven coal	73	83
July 24, 1863	685	Lime and wool	75	85
April 19, 1869	673	Yard coal mine	76	86
Nov. 18, 1869	700	Strong blue metal	76	87
Feb. 22, 1869	736	Strong blue metal	76	88·5
March 12, 1869	748	Shale	77	89
April 17, 1869	762	Lime & wool, or shale	78	90·5
May 3, 1869	774	Strong shale	80	91·5
May 19, 1869	782	Blue metal	79	92
July 5, 1869	801	Strong blue shale	79	93
July 16, 1869	808	Coal (Arley mine)	79	93·5

The Royal School of Mines, Jermyn Street.

MR. WARINGTON SMYTH'S LECTURES.

[FROM NOTES BY OUR OWN REPORTER.]

LECTURE XXII.—The last lecture (said Mr. SMYTH) placed before you the chief considerations which influence the various systems on which the men are to be paid for divers kinds of work; and you will have seen that widely different methods are compatible with each other, even in one mine. Any attempt to pay by one method in metalliferous mines especially would be detrimental to success; and it is, therefore, a necessity which cannot be got over to pay in a mixed way, both as to the ground laid open for exploration and that also which has to be brought away. It is sometimes necessary to combine two systems even in the same bargain, and to give a certain amount to the men according to the extent they drive, and allow them besides so much for every ton of ore they extract, the object of the latter being to render them careful not to allow the valuable material to mix and be lost amongst the attle or waste. We will now pass on to consider a little more in detail the workings themselves, taking first those being carried on for non-metallic minerals open to the day, and, therefore, called open workings, or quarries. Amongst these some of the simplest, at first sight, are where certain quantities of loose material have to be removed, but where, nevertheless, great care must be taken as to the system upon which it is to be done. A very small mistake in that system, when the quantities are large, may make a great difference in the economic results at the last. The overlie in such cases generally consists of vegetable soil, or sand, or gravel, and it may include a quantity of useless rock, before the material to be turned to account can be reached. Some very notable examples of successful arrangements of this kind are to be found in the stream works of Cornwall, and which have been imitated on a much larger scale, at least in principle, in similar works in Australia and California. Dealing with the removal of the "overburden," as it is called, the useless sand and gravel which overlie the ore-bearing sand, which is next to the rock, often involves the removal of 30 or 40 feet of this material. At Pentland, near St. Austell, there is a stream work between two hills; the alluvium to be removed is nowhere less than 20 feet, and often reaches as much as 40 feet. In working a place of this kind it is usual to begin at the lowest end, and gradually proceed upwards. Having thus opened the ground, and worked up to a certain distance, the over beds are cut through by a series of steps. In this country it is important that the surface soil should not be destroyed, and consequently, the turf is always carefully rolled up and stacked, and the vegetable soil also is placed aside in convenient heaps, so that when the work is done the soil may be resown, the turf relaid, and no occasion is given to the farmer or landlord to complain.

There is usually a natural stream running through valleys of this kind, and its course is so managed that the loose debris is easily washed away by the action of the water, leaving the portion in which tin or gold is expected to be found for closer inspection. This is a kind of work which has lately been going on in the north-east part of Scotland, at Helmsdale, or what is called the Sutherland gold diggings, where some of the operations are on a large scale, the steps being 7 or 8 feet in height. The overburden being almost invariably composed of incoherent material, it would be a bad arrangement, and nearly impracticable, to cut it in a straight line, like a quarry; and, besides, by cutting it away in steps many more men can be placed at work on a given amount of material, and that, too, with perfect safety. As the material is removed it is thrown back in heaps, and afterwards fills up again a great portion of the space opened. Then the valuable detritus being left uncovered is subjected to the various processes in vogue for obtaining the metallic particles which constitute its wealth. In cases of this kind much difficulty is sometimes experienced in getting rid of the water. Of course, there are numerous localities where this does not occur, but in California "wet diggings," as they are called, are by no means infrequent. One of the commonest modes of dealing with it is to construct a culvert, which follows up the works, and into which the water is directed, the rubbish being piled over it. The construction is often rude and unfinished, the roof being merely stones laid across, and the rubbish piled upon it. Of course, an outlet must be secured, and that being done all the surplus water passes away by a continual and uninterrupted drainage, and by this system the works advance through the valley, the soil being replaced and the surface made good as they proceed. If the land be marshy it is returned to the agriculturist in a very much better condition than when the miners took it in hand. Sometimes it is necessary to turn a stream by a dam, and carry it past the works in artificial channels. Roads may have to be diverted in the same way, and in thickly populated countries a great deal of money may have to be laid out in this way, which in California and Australia will involve next to nothing in expenditure.

The cost of removing the overburden, if done by manual labour entirely, is very heavy, and particularly in new countries, like California, where labour is dear. The Californians, to meet this difficulty, have introduced a system which they call "hydraulic mining." Water is brought from reservoirs, or tanks, by what are called "flumes," or aqueducts, which are placed at an elevation of 120 or 140 feet above the auriferous gravel to be acted upon; and there will be a mass of from 120 to 160 feet of gravel to be removed. The water, thus conveyed, passes into a large wooden tank, or "box" as the local term is. This box is provided with a valve, and from it the water is conveyed to the bottom of the working by means of a strong sheet-iron riveted pipe, from 8 to 14 in.

in diameter, in the sides of which are apertures, provided with slide valves and union joints, to which four or five flexible tubes or hose are attached, each ending in a nozzle of bronze 2½ to 3 inches diameter. From these powerful jets are directed against the face of the working, with a force which, it is said, can only be compared to that of ordnance, and where the supply of water is large, and the fall considerable, the effect is perfectly astonishing. The quantity of material dislodged by a single arrangement of this kind is greater than could be produced by a regiment of navvies, and its economy, therefore, is extremely great. Mr. J. A. Phillips, in his recent excellent work, entitled "Mining and Metallurgy of Gold and Silver," gives as an illustration of the amount of work which can be performed in a given time by hydraulic mining the results obtained at the Eureka Claim, near San Juan, California, where the bed of "pay dirt" is about 135 feet in depth. The upper portion of this deposit, to the depth of 70 feet, does not contain a large amount of gold, but is easily worked, whilst the lower portion, having a thickness of 65 feet, is much richer, and cemented together, and the work is, therefore, carried on under conditions of considerable difficulty. The pay-dirt is reached by a bed-rock tunnel of great length, which cost on an average \$8 per foot, and of which the total expense was \$28,000. The work is carried on by means of four jets d'eau, discharging together about 208 gallons per second, or 12,500 gallons per minute, under a pressure of 140 feet. The whole of the operations are conducted by four men, and at the expiration of ten working days the washing down of fresh earth is suspended, and the sluices cleared up. In these ten days \$5,500 cubic yards of gravel are worked over. All that the men have to do is to direct the nozzles, and no human labour can be placed in comparison with the system, either in effect or economy. Mr. Phillips gives an interesting statement of the cost of these ten days, as follows:—Cost of water, \$1000; labour, \$173; sundries, \$100—total, \$1273. The average quantity of gold obtained in this period is worth \$6000. This is sufficient to give an idea of this admirable method of removing the overburden when it is composed of loose material; but when it is more adhesive charges of powder must be used. Examples are still to be found in this country of hydraulic mining on a small scale, and particularly in the hilly regions of South Derbyshire, where it is called "patching," and of Wales. When, however, the beds dip into the hills, patching will no longer pay, and recourse must be had to underground workings. Very similar is the case of the slate quarries of North Wales, in which a vast amount of capital is embarked, and thousands of workpeople are employed.

Remarkable examples of the working away of rocks on a large scale are furnished by the quarries of the Cambrian and Silurian deposits at Bangor, Llanberis, Llanllyfni, and Carnarvon. There are also some admirable workings at Festiniog and to the south of Dolgellau; and, indeed, these two classes of rocks are distinguished, not so much for the excellence and colour of their slate as for their cleavage. In the Bangor and Carnarvon districts the cleavage is nearly vertical, while at Festiniog it has a considerable angle, and hence the workings assume different forms. The most remarkable quarries are those of Lord Penrhyn, not far from Bangor, which are wrought in a most systematic manner, and it has taken many years to bring them into their present form. Those who may have to open new quarries should be careful so to place them as to secure future regularity of form, and great care should be taken to provide a sufficient amount of room in a convenient place for the rubbish, as for every ton of saleable slate there are, on the average, 20 tons of refuse to be rid of. For this reason open workings in narrow valleys should always be regarded with suspicion, as after a time they will always be paid extra for tipping, and capital will thus be spent upon what is not to be charged to it. One would like to particularise, but cases in which foolish expenditure of this kind have been incurred are by no means infrequent. Indeed, there is no kind of mining adventure in which there has been more disappointment than in slate quarries. Of those worked on a large scale one tenth, probably, would be removed in a proportion to what were profitably at an early period of their history. Tempting specimens are put forward as to the character of the slate to be worked, which may be true enough, but it can only be approached from a narrow way, or under circumstances which do not allow of the easy and inexpensive removal of the rubbish, matters seldom decided on taken into account, the speculation will prove a losing one. The usual mode of working is by a series of steps, each step having a railroad, or tramway, upon it, for the easy removal of the material. The quarries at Penrhyn are in the shape of a vast amphitheatre, nearly half a mile across, giving ample space for the rubbish to be tipped. The good slate is carried down a self-acting incline, the full wagons as they descend drawing up the empty ones. It must never be forgotten that a second removal of the rubbish is not only fraught with enormous expense, but is often productive, besides, of much inconvenience. The first consideration, therefore, in laying out a slate quarry should be sufficient room, and that in the right place, and the proper sort of place for conveniently tipping the wagons. One of the most successful quarries now in Wales is one in which for the first 25 years of its existence no profits were divided; the overlie to be removed was great, and just as they were about to make profits a vast mass, estimated variously from 60,000 to 100,000 tons, came down and filled all the workings. It is to prevent accidents of this kind that the step system is adopted, but they are, notwithstanding, tolerably frequent, and it is, indeed, wonderful that there is so little loss of life. Quarrymen are a hardy race, and have an ever watchful eye on anything overhead that is at all dangerous or threatening, and particularly where the strata are jointed, and, therefore, liable to break away suddenly. A very curious mode of breaking ground was made in North Wales last year. A vast mass had been pronounced unsafe, and it overthrew a depth in which the Monument of London might be planted, and not been seen outside. They brought up a corps of volunteer artillery, which opened fire upon the rock, but the shots produced but little effect. I happened once to witness a fall of this kind, in which thousands of tons came thundering down in one mass, like an avalanche in the Alps. The only safeguard against catastrophes of this kind is to leave strong buttresses. The step system is, however, far preferable to those vast perpendicular cuttings, in which the cleavage is parallel to the cutting are very dangerous. In opening slate quarries the direction of the cleavage is also a matter of importance, as sometimes its line is different to that of the bedding.

Some curious points have arisen now and again as to how far a quarry may come under the designation of a mine. It often happens in large quarries that drifts are run, perhaps, for drainage, and other underground operations are carried out. Indeed, in some places where access to a deposit of good slate is obtained on a hill side, the overlie being an unusually great thickness of useless material, it is found cheaper to work it as a mine rather than as an open quarry. Many lawsuits have arisen on this very point, but the conclusion arrived at appears to be that workings in the daylight are quarries, while those in which artificial light must be employed are mines.

Another matter of importance chiefly obtained by quarrying is building stones, of which there is a considerable variety, but they are sometimes obtained by mining; as, for instance, the Box Quarries, which have already been mentioned, and where the works are carried on with great regularity and success. LECTURE XXIII.—I have already mentioned that when open workings, carried on by the light of day, advance into the condition of what may be called a mine artificial light becomes necessary. This happens as soon as the material forming the upper lie becomes of such a thickness that to remove it would be incompatible with economy, and thus sometimes these workings in one part are carried on as quarries, and in other parts underground. The latter is, however, a very expensive process, because although the open spaces are necessarily such as that the roof will sustain itself, there will be many places where the rock will have to be cut away in much narrower spaces than is usual in quarrying, and so absorb a considerable portion of the material which otherwise would be taken away, besides the cost of arrangements for ventilation, for where large quantities of blasting powder are employed dense bodies of smoke are produced, which must be removed before work can be resumed. If we take the case of a salt mine, or of brown coal or lignite, they will be found to resemble a slate working in so far as the whole of the material has to be removed as in a quarry. At the workings for brown coal at Bovey Tracey, in Devon, great slabs are taken away 20 ft. or 30 ft. in height, and they are essentially a sort of quarry. When the ground cannot be taken in long staves the plan adopted is that of sinking holes, something like the gold diggings of California and Australia, and then removing the material. The size of the pits being limited, the water may be drawn out by buckets or hand pumps, and in this way they work down to the bottom of the deposits. The sides of the pit at the bottom are then scooped away as far as is consistent with safety, but this is a wasteful mode of working. In the salt mines the same sort of thing may be observed. In Cordova, in Spain, there are magnificent open quarries, where the salt crops up to the surface of the ground, the solid rock standing out in bold cliffs, while in other places the workings are carried underground. This brings us to the subject of lighting these underground chambers, and what are the most suitable methods for lighting the various passages or galleries, shafts, levels, and the workings of mines. I need not speak of the exceptionable methods of foreign countries, as, for instance, the extensive cavernous workings of Norway and Sweden, where torches of resinous woods are employed, or such curious devices as that of imprisoning fire-flies in bottles, and endeavouring to work by the faint phosphorescent light thus obtained, but pass at once to those methods now generally used in ordinary mining districts. These consist almost entirely of candles and of various forms of lamps, and a controversy meets us upon the threshold as to which of these two are best. Candles have the advantage of being formed with greater facility and of being handled like lamps; but, on the other hand, they require constant attention, and are more apt to go out in strong currents of air, and also where the air is vitiated. They are best for the purposes of inspection, as they will throw a large blaze of light on any particular spot, but they must be protected from draughts. The waste is immense where large numbers of men are using them to work by. It may be said that as the men pay for their candles or for their lamps, it is a matter of indifference to the employers, but that is a mistake, as in the long run any waste is sure to come back to the company or mine owners. In the salt mines of Hungary large candles, six to the pound, are used, but much smaller kinds are common in the metalliferous mines of this country, and in the collieries where open lights are objectionable. Thus in the greater proportion of the mines of Cornwall they have candles of 20 or 30 to the pound, but for some particular purposes, and for the agents and managers of the mine, larger sizes are made, which are called "captain's candles." Formerly a very thin long candle was used to test the presence of gas and condition of the atmosphere, and the coolness and judgment of the firemen in performing this dangerous duty was really wonderful. Where carburetted hydrogen is mingled with a certain volume of air, the flame of a candle burning in it is elongated more or less according to the proportions of the mixture. To apply this test, candles of 50 or 60 to the pound were held in the hand of the fireman, who advanced when the presence of gas was suspected. He then gradually raised the light with a steady hand, and observes the elongation, shape, and colour of the flame. If the mixture is not safe the flame lengthens to such an extent that it appears as if it would suddenly break away, and leap off the wick. The experimenter then knows that they are on the very verge of an explosion. In former days, when the gas was tested in this way, the men acquired so much skill, and their confidence and coolness were so great, that they sometimes, merely in bravado, and to show what they could do, would advance the candle in the way I have described to the very verge of explosion, and then quickly withdraw it. In the present day the safety-lamp is employed to test the presence of gas, and is not only so much safer but so much better, that the former practice has fallen into disuse. When candles have to be carried into the mine it is necessary to have some sort of holder. A very simple and useful arrangement is to hold the candle with nippers, fixed on a pointed handle, which can be inserted in a cleft of

the face of working quite near to the place operated upon. In the Mexican mines Analogous to this is the "blende" of the Saxon miner, which is a rough case of wood, strongly made, and contrived to hang with a cord round his neck, and leave both his hands at liberty. Another kind of Saxon blende is fitted with a slide of glass so as to retain the light while excluding the draught. In our country it is usual to take a little well-tempered clay of sufficient moistness, in which the candle is inserted; and large lumps of clay are deposited at well-known spots in the mine for the use of the men, who knead it into the required shape with much handiness. The clay is then fixed by its own adhesiveness to the side of the rock or timber just where the work is being done, and the men get the light precisely on the spot where it is needed to direct his blows. As regards the quantity of candle thus used, it is customary to allow the men to take out from the mine stores a certain number for a week or a month, for which he is duly charged on the day of settlement. The usual allowance is about 3 lbs. of candles per man for a week of six shifts, of eight hours each. Of the various forms of open lights oil lamps have been proved to be more economical than candles. I do not know what adulteration tallow is susceptible of, but in all countries there are good and bad candles, and the latter are never satisfactory either for lasting or lighting qualities. A well-made candle, with a fair allowance of wick, gives a large amount of flame, and has the advantage of being easily blown in again if puffed out by a sudden gush. When miners have a high temperature candle soften, and burn very rapidly, and then lamps are brought into play. It is a matter of dispute, but not one of much moment, whether lamps it is better to burn tallow than oil. North of the Tweed, where the people are proverbially saving, they have a lamp of very simple construction, which costs only from 2½d. to 3d. each, and which will burn through an ordinary oil eight hours at an expense of something between 1d. and 2d. Lamps, however, cannot be attached like a candle by the adhesion of a piece of clay, and must, therefore, have hooks or contrivances to hang them from the sides. At the Moors mines the lamps are mounted, as it were, on a longish pointed piece of iron, which is thrust horizontally into the wall or face of the working, and some closely adjacent position. Another form, used a good deal in the same districts, is a strong nail-shaped lamp made of iron, in which is burnt a small tallow candle. These lamps have reflectors of white metal, which then produce a splendid light. In Hungen and the Harts, in the mines of Prussia, Westphalia, and of Spain, oil is universally used.

We will now turn to what is of far more importance—the lamps which have to be used in the presence of explosive gases, where open lights cannot or ought not to be tolerated.

In some workings it is necessary from the first to employ safety-lamps, while in others the same necessity exists only as to certain parts. Everyone is acquainted with the introduction of the safety-lamp. At the end of the last century great anxiety was felt for the discovery of some system of obtaining a light even in the midst of the explosive mixtures of gases and atmospheric air which infested the deeper collieries with so much danger, and many other modes were tried before the safety-lamp.

Amongst other things a succession of bright reflectors was tried, with the view of throwing the light transmitted by the shaft from its bottom into the levels, but this could not generally answer for more than a short distance, and was not available for general use. It not unfrequently happened that drifts or cross-shafts would have to be made from one level to another for the purpose of ventilating the dark where it was impossible to go with naked lights, and men who would work in the dark were at a premium. In this way, by hook or by crook, cuttings were made, and then, a current of air being established, the work could go on for time in the usual way, until the same difficulty would arise, and men would have to work in the dark again, which was a slow and laborious process.

Amongst other devices that of the steel mill was tried in the more dangerous parts. By this contrivance continuous showers of sparks were thrown off affording a strong glimmering light. This contrivance lasted a long while and it is not so many years ago since a pamphlet was written, calling it "the miners best friend." It has now entirely passed away, and the specimen which you will find upstairs in